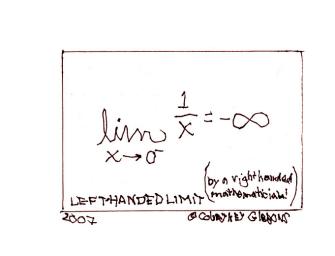
# Sequences, Limits, Etc.

David Carlson

2021

Sequences, Limits, Etc.



We're often interested in determining if a function f approaches some number L as its independent variable x moves to some number c (usually 0 or  $\pm \infty$ ).

We're often interested in determining if a function f approaches some number L as its independent variable x moves to some number c (usually 0 or  $\pm \infty$ ). If it does, we say that f(x) approaches L as x approaches c, or  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = L$ .

We're often interested in determining if a function f approaches some number L as its independent variable x moves to some number c (usually 0 or  $\pm \infty$ ). If it does, we say that f(x) approaches L as x approaches c, or  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = L$ .

#### The limit of a function

Let f be defined at each point in some open interval containing the point c, although possibly not defined at c itself.

We're often interested in determining if a function f approaches some number L as its independent variable x moves to some number c (usually 0 or  $\pm \infty$ ). If it does, we say that f(x) approaches L as x approaches c, or  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = L$ .

#### The limit of a function

Let f be defined at each point in some open interval containing the point c, although possibly not defined at c itself. Then  $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = L$  if for any (small positive) number  $\epsilon$ , there exists a corresponding number  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - c| < \delta$ , then  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

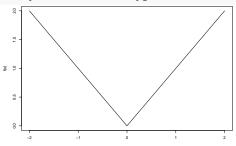
# Basic examples

- $\lim_{x \to \infty} |x| = 0$

### Basic examples

```
\lim_{x\to c} k = k
\lim_{x \to c} x = c
```

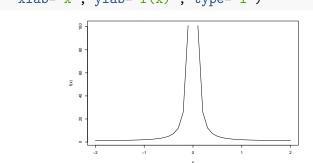
xlab="x", ylab="f(x)", type="l")



$$\lim_{x \to 0} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{x^2} \right) = \infty$$

$$\text{plot(seq(-2, 2, by=.1), 1+1/(seq(-2, 2, by=.1))^2, }$$

$$\text{xlab="x", ylab="f(x)", type="l")}$$



Let f and g be functions with  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = A$  and  $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) = B$ .

$$\lim_{x \to c} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \to c} f(x) + \lim_{x \to c} g(x) = A + B$$

Let f and g be functions with  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = A$  and  $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) = B$ .

- - $\lim_{x \to c} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \to c} \hat{f(x)} + \lim_{x \to c} g(x) = \hat{A} + \hat{B}$  $\lim_{x \to \infty} \alpha f(x) = \alpha \lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = \alpha A$

Let f and g be functions with  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = A$  and  $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) = B$ .

- - $\lim_{x \to c} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \to c} f(x) + \lim_{x \to c} g(x) = A + B$
  - $\lim_{x \to c} \alpha f(x) = \alpha \lim_{x \to c} f(x) = \alpha A$
  - $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x)g(x) = [\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x)][\lim_{x \to \infty} g(x)] = AB$

Let f and g be functions with  $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = A$  and  $\lim_{x \to c} g(x) = B$ .

Let f and g be functions with 
$$\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = A$$
 and  $\lim_{x \to c} g(x) = B$ .

$$\lim_{x \to c} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \to c} f(x) + \lim_{x \to c} g(x) = A + B$$

$$\lim_{\substack{x \to c \\ x \to c}} \alpha f(x) = \alpha \lim_{\substack{x \to c \\ x \to c}} f(x) = \alpha A$$

$$\lim_{\substack{x \to c \\ x \to c}} f(x)g(x) = \lim_{\substack{x \to c \\ x \to c}} f(x) \left[\lim_{\substack{x \to c \\ x \to c}} g(x)\right] = AB$$

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{\lim_{x \to c} g(x)} = \frac{A}{B}, \text{ provided } B \neq 0$$

# Examples

$$\lim_{x \to 2} (2x - 3) = 2 \lim_{x \to 2} x - 3 \lim_{x \to 2} 1 = 2 \times 2 - 3 \times 1 = 1$$

## **Examples**

$$\lim_{\substack{x \to 2 \\ \lim_{x \to c} x}} (2x - 3) = 2 \lim_{\substack{x \to 2 \\ \lim_{x \to c} x}} x - 3 \lim_{\substack{x \to 2 \\ \lim_{x \to c} x}} 1 = 2 \times 2 - 3 \times 1 = 1$$

### Other types of limits:

▶ Right-hand limit:  $\lim_{x\to c^+} f(x) = L$ , if

$$c < x < c + \delta \Longrightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

Example:  $\lim_{x\to 0^+} \sqrt{x} = 0$ 

### Other types of limits:

▶ **Right-hand limit**: 
$$\lim_{x \to c^+} f(x) = L$$
, if

$$c < x < c + \delta \Longrightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

Example: 
$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \sqrt{x} = 0$$

• Left-hand limit:  $\lim_{x \to 0^+} f(x) = I$ , if

Left-hand limit: 
$$\lim_{x \to c^-} f(x) = L$$
, if  $c - \delta < x < c \Longrightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ 

▶ Infinity: 
$$\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$$
, if  $x > N \Longrightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ 

$$\lim_{x\to\infty} r(x) = L, \text{ if } x > N \longrightarrow |r(x) - L|$$

► -Infinity: 
$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = L$$
, if  $x < -N \Longrightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ 

Example:  $\lim_{x \to \infty} 1/x = \lim_{x \to -\infty} 1/x = 0$ 

#### Caution

In some situations, you will not be able to calculate a limit. For instance,  $\lim_{x\to\infty}\frac{x}{-x}.$  The numerator is headed towards  $\infty$  while the denominator is headed towards  $-\infty.$  In this case the limit does not exist. In other circumstances, the limit may exist but additional steps need to be taken.

### Existence of a limit

The limit of a function exists only if the left and right hand limits are equal to the same value.

$$\lim_{x \to c^{-}} f(x) = \lim_{x \to c^{+}} f(x)$$

# Find the limits (if they exist):

$$\lim_{x\to 5}\frac{1}{(x-5)^2}$$

2.

$$\lim_{x\to 5} 2x^2 - 5x + 7$$

3.

$$\lim_{y\to\infty}\frac{1}{y^6}$$

4.

$$\lim_{y\to 0}\frac{1}{y^6}$$

5.

$$\lim_{x \to 20} \frac{2x+3}{5x^2}$$

# Continuity

**Continuity**: Suppose that the domain of the function f includes an open interval containing the point c. Then f is continuous at c if  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x)$  exists and if  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = f(c)$ .

# Continuity

**Continuity**: Suppose that the domain of the function f includes an open interval containing the point c. Then f is continuous at c if  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x)$  exists and if  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = f(c)$ .

Further, f is continuous on an open interval (a, b) if it is continuous at each point in the interval.

# Examples: Continuous functions.

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}$$
$$f(x) = e^x$$

# Examples: Continuous functions.

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}$$
$$f(x) = e^x$$

# Examples: Discontinuous functions.

$$f(x) = floor(x)$$
  
$$f(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{x^2}$$

# Basic properties of continuous functions

If f and g are continuous at point c, then

▶ f + g, f - g,  $f \times g$ , |f|, and  $\alpha f$  are continuous.

# Basic properties of continuous functions

If f and g are continuous at point c, then

- $\blacktriangleright$  f+g, f-g,  $f\times g$ , |f|, and  $\alpha f$  are continuous.
- f/g is continuous, provided  $g(c) \neq 0$ .

### Boundedness

If f is continuous on the closed bounded interval [a, b], then there is a number K such that  $|f(x)| \le K$  for each x in [a, b].

#### **Boundedness**

If f is continuous on the closed bounded interval [a, b], then there is a number K such that  $|f(x)| \le K$  for each x in [a, b].

# Max/min:

If f is continous on the closed bounded interval [a, b], then f has a maximum and a minimum on [a, b], possibly at the end points. The range of a closed bounded interval [a, b] under a continuous function f is also a closed bounded interval [m, M].

### Some practice

- 1. Show whether  $f(x) = x + x^3$  has a limit at x = 3 and, if so, the value of the limit.
- 2. Find  $\lim_{x\to 4} (x-3)(x+5)$
- 3. Find  $\lim_{x\to 2} \frac{3x^2-12}{x-2}$
- 4. Find  $\lim_{x\to 2} \frac{x^3-4}{x-2}$
- 5. Is the function  $f(x) = \frac{\ln(x)}{x}$  continuous for  $x \in [2, \infty)$ ?
- 6. Is the function below continuous? If not, what could be done to make it so?

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^3 - 3x + 4 & x \le 3 \\ x^2 & x > 3 \end{cases}$$

# Sequences

A **sequence**  $\{y_n\} = \{y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n\}$  is an ordered set of real numbers, where  $y_1$  is the first term in the sequence and  $y_n$  is the nth term. Generally, a sequence extends to  $n = \infty$ . We can also write the sequence as  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

### Example sequences

Think of sequences like functions. Before, we had y = f(x) with x specified over some domain. Now we have  $\{y_n\} = \{f(n)\}$  with  $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ 

### Example sequences

Think of sequences like functions. Before, we had y = f(x) with x specified over some domain. Now we have  $\{y_n\} = \{f(n)\}$  with

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

1. 
$$\{y_n\} = \left\{2 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right\} = \left\{1, \frac{7}{4}, \frac{17}{9}, \frac{31}{16}, \ldots\right\}$$

2. 
$$\{y_n\} = \left\{\frac{n^2+1}{n}\right\} = \left\{2, \frac{5}{2}, \frac{10}{3}, \ldots\right\}$$

3. 
$$\{y_n\} = \{(-1)^n (1 - \frac{1}{n})\} = \{0, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \ldots\}$$

### Example sequences

Think of sequences like functions. Before, we had y = f(x) with x specified over some domain. Now we have  $\{y_n\} = \{f(n)\}$  with

- $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ 
  - 1.  $\{y_n\} = \left\{2 \frac{1}{n^2}\right\} = \left\{1, \frac{7}{4}, \frac{17}{9}, \frac{31}{16}, \dots\right\}$
  - 2.  $\{y_n\} = \left\{\frac{n^2+1}{n}\right\} = \left\{2, \frac{5}{2}, \frac{10}{3}, \dots\right\}$
  - 3.  $\{y_n\} = \left\{ (-1)^n \left(1 \frac{1}{n}\right) \right\} = \{0, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \ldots \}$
  - Sequences like 1 above that converge to a limit.
  - ▶ Sequences like 2 above that increase without bound.
  - ▶ Sequences like 3 above that neither converge nor increase
- ► Why? Let's draw them.

**Bounded**: if  $|y_n| \le K$  for all n

- **Bounded**: if  $|y_n| \le K$  for all n
- ▶ Monotone Increasing:  $y_{n+1} > y_n$  for all n

- **Bounded**: if  $|y_n| \le K$  for all n
- ▶ Monotone Increasing:  $y_{n+1} > y_n$  for all n
- ▶ Monotone Decreasing:  $y_{n+1} < y_n$  for all n

- **Bounded**: if  $|y_n| \le K$  for all n
- ▶ Monotone Increasing:  $y_{n+1} > y_n$  for all n
- ▶ Monotone Decreasing:  $y_{n+1} < y_n$  for all n
- **Subsequence**: Choose a (possibly infinite) collection of entries from  $\{y_n\}$ , retaining their order.

We're often interested in whether a sequence **converges** to a **limit**. Limits of sequences are conceptually similar to the limits of functions addressed earlier.

We're often interested in whether a sequence **converges** to a **limit**. Limits of sequences are conceptually similar to the limits of

functions addressed earlier.

The sequence  $\{v_i\}$  has the **limit** I, that is  $\lim_{t \to 0} v_i = I$ , if

The sequence  $\{y_n\}$  has the **limit** L, that is  $\lim_{n\to\infty} y_n = L$ , if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an integer N (which depends on  $\epsilon$ ) with the property that  $|y_n - L| < \epsilon$  for each n > N.  $\{y_n\}$  is said to converge to L. If the above does not hold, then  $\{y_n\}$  diverges.

We're often interested in whether a sequence **converges** to a **limit**. Limits of sequences are conceptually similar to the limits of

functions addressed earlier.

The sequence  $\{v_i\}$  has the **limit** I, that is  $\lim_{t \to 0} v_i = I$ , if

The sequence  $\{y_n\}$  has the **limit** L, that is  $\lim_{n\to\infty} y_n = L$ , if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an integer N (which depends on  $\epsilon$ ) with the property that  $|y_n - L| < \epsilon$  for each n > N.  $\{y_n\}$  is said to converge to L. If the above does not hold, then  $\{y_n\}$  diverges.

We're often interested in whether a sequence **converges** to a **limit**. Limits of sequences are conceptually similar to the limits of

functions addressed earlier.

The sequence  $\{y_n\}$  has the **limit** L, that is  $\lim_{n\to\infty}y_n=L$ , if for any  $\epsilon>0$  there is an integer N (which depends on  $\epsilon$ ) with the property that  $|y_n-L|<\epsilon$  for each n>N.  $\{y_n\}$  is said to converge to L. If the above does not hold, then  $\{y_n\}$  diverges.

$$\{y_n\} = \left\{2 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right\} = \left\{1, \frac{7}{4}, \frac{17}{9}, \frac{31}{16}, \dots\right\}$$

#### Limits of a vector of sequences

Finding the limit of a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is similar to that in  $\mathbb{R}^1$ .

The sequence of vectors  $\{\mathbf{y_n}\}$  has the limit  $\mathbf{L}$ , that is  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbf{y_n}=\mathbf{L}$ , if for any  $\epsilon$  there is an integer N where  $||\mathbf{y_n}-\mathbf{L}||<\epsilon$  for each n>N. The sequence of vectors  $\{\mathbf{y_n}\}$  is said to converge to the vector  $\mathbf{L}$  — and the distances between  $\mathbf{y_n}$  and  $\mathbf{L}$  converge to zero.

## Limits of a vector of sequences

Finding the limit of a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is similar to that in  $\mathbb{R}^1$ .

- The sequence of vectors  $\{\mathbf{y_n}\}$  has the limit  $\mathbf{L}$ , that is  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbf{y_n} = \mathbf{L}$ , if for any  $\epsilon$  there is an integer N where  $||\mathbf{y_n} \mathbf{L}|| < \epsilon$  for each n > N. The sequence of vectors  $\{\mathbf{y_n}\}$  is said to converge to the vector  $\mathbf{L}$  and the distances between  $\mathbf{y_n}$  and  $\mathbf{L}$  converge to zero.
  - ► Think of each coordinate of the vector y<sub>n</sub> as being part of its own sequence over n. Then a sequence of vectors in R<sup>n</sup> converges if and only if all n sequences of its components converge.

# Examples:

- 1. The sequence  $\{y_n\}$  where  $y_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}, 2 \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$  converges to (0, 2).
- 2. The sequence  $\{y_n\}$  where  $y_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}, (-1)^n\right)$  does not converge, since  $\{(-1)^n\}$  does not converge.

 $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left\{ \frac{4^n}{n!} \right\} = ?$ 

▶ Show  $\sum_{k=0}^{4} ar^k$ . Then find  $\lim_{K\to\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{K} ar^k$ , where |r|<1.